

## Annual Research & Review in Biology

34(3): 1-22, 2019; Article no.ARRB.54075 ISSN: 2347-565X, NLM ID: 101632869

# Geographic Distribution of Global Economic Important Mahogany Complex: A Review

Jones Abrefa Danquah<sup>1\*</sup>, Mark Appiah<sup>2,3</sup>, Adam Osman<sup>1</sup> and Ari Pappinen<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Geography and Regional Planning, Faculty of Social Sciences, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Republic of Ghana. <sup>2</sup>CSIR-Forestry Research Institute of Ghana, P.O.Box UP 63, KNUST, Kumasi, Republic of Ghana. <sup>3</sup>School of Forest Sciences, University of Eastern Finland, Joensuu Campus, Yliopistokatu 7, 80101 Joensuu, Finland.

#### Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Author JAD performed the literature search and produced initial draft manuscript. Authors MA and AP proof read and reviewed the manuscript, while author AO developed the maps for the illustrations. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

#### Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/ARRB/2019/v34i330154

Editor(s)

(1) Dr. Rishee K. Kalaria, Assistant Professor, Bioinformatics Section, Aspee Shakilam Biotechnology Institute, Navsari Agricultural University, Surat, India.

Reviewers:

(1) Ouinsavi Christine A. I. Nougbodé, University of Parakou, Republic of Benin.
(2) C. Yonny Martinez Lopez, Federal University of Espírito Santo. Brazil.
Complete Peer review History: <a href="http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/54075">http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/54075</a>

Review Article

Received 15 November 2019 Accepted 18 January 2020 Published 07 February 2020

#### **ABSTRACT**

Mahogany is the collective international trade name for the high-value tropical and subtropical timber tree species of the family *Meliaceae*. Mahogany species are noted for their deep red-brown heartwood and are widely used in the construction, boat building, interior decoration (particularly paneling and floor tiles), and in the manufacture of furniture. Across their natural geographical distribution range, many rural communities depend for their livelihoods on the genetic resources of the species as they provide natural products and services. However, mahogany populations across their native range are threatened by deforestation, habitat fragmentation, excessive logging and genetic erosion. In addition, climate change may bring about a shift in the distributional range of the native species. To safeguard the rich diversity of mahogany requires a conscientious effort in policy formulation and the enforcement of existing laws in regard to the management and conservation of the species. In addition, it is imperative that mahogany is used as an integral component in

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author: E-mail: jones.danquah@ucc.edu.gh, abrefad@gmail.com;

agroforestry systems and in reforestation efforts, as well as in the restoration of degraded forest ecosystems in order to protect the genetic resources of the species. The aim of this review was to highlight the threats to the sustainability of the species. We conducted literature review to examine the geographic distributional range of a mahogany complex (Khaya spp, Entandrophragma spp, Cedrela spp, Toona spp, Swietenia spp) at global, regional and ecosystem scales. We used maps as annotated diagrams to show the probable geographic global distribution range of the mahogany complex. The Khaya spp. and Entandrophragma spp. are native to Africa, Cedrela spp. and Swietenia spp. are native to Central and South America, whereas, Toona spp. are found primarily in southeast Asia.

Keywords: Mahogany; Khaya; entandrophragma; Swietenia; genetic resources; sustainability.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Mahogany is the collective international trade name for economically high-value tropical and subtropical hardwood timber tree species [1,2,3]. Mahogany accounts for a relatively high proportion of the international trade in tropical hardwoods [3,4,5]. Characteristically, they are noted for their fine grain, red-brown heartwood, and resistance to drought and pest infestations [6.7.8] Most mahoganies are members of the family Meliaceae, with the exception of the Shorea species (Philippine mahogany), which is a member of Dipterocarpaceae. Over 30 species belonging to genera Khaya, Entandrophragma, Toona, Cedrela and Swietenia are involved in the international trade associated with the mahogany label (see Fig. 1). The genus Khaya consists of six species: K. anthotheca, K. grandifoliola, K. ivorensis, K. madagascariensis, K. nyasica and senegalensis [3,9,10,11]. However, madagascariensis considered is endangered by International Union of Conservation of Nature (IUCN) due to lost habitats [12]. Four species are recognized in the genus Entandrophragma; E. utile, E. cylindricum, E. angolenses and E.candollei [4]. The Khaya and Entandrophragma species are described as African mahoganies [13,14,15]. In appearance and working properties. African mahogany is difficult to distinguish from American mahogany as Khaya, Entandrophragma and Swietenia are closely related genera and belong to the same family (i.e. Meliaceae) [7]. The basic morphological distinction between African mahogany and American mahogany is that the former has four parted flowers and the latter has five [16]. Strictly speaking, true mahoganies belong to the genus Swietenia, which consists of the three main economic timber tree species. namely S. humilis. S. mahagoni and S. macrophylla. The latter is by far the most overexploited species, and illegal logging and habitat destruction have resulted in low natural

population numbers throughout its native range. Thus, S. macrophylla was placed on Appendix II of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES) in 2002 [17,18,19]. True mahoganies have been harvested for hundreds of years. The initial exports of S. macrophylla to Europe and United States were carried out around the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries respectively (see 17). In the genus Swietenia, the three species can crossbreed to produce hybrids (e.g., S. x aubrevilleana) within zones of distributional convergence [10,20]. The genera Cedrela and Toona are closely related, and all belong to the same family (Meliaceae), subfamily (Swietenioideae) and tribe (Cedreleae) [21,22]. These two genera (Toona and Cedrela) contain 69 species that occur in the Americas, Southeast Asia, Australasia and India [23]. Indeed. they were previously classified taxonomically under the same genus Cedrela [24]. All the eastern (Southeast Asia or Australasia) species of Cedrela are now classified under the genus Toona [25,26], thus leaving nine species of Cedrela that occur in the Americas [23]. The genus *Toona* has six major timber species of economic importance namely: T. calantas (Kalantas or Philippine mahogany), T. ciliate (syn. T. australis — Australian red cedar or Indian mahogany), T. sinensis (Chinese mahogany or Chinese Toona), T. sureni (syn. T. febrifuga —Vietnamese mahogany; Indonesian mahogany) and *T.* fargesii. The Western (or Americas) *Cedrela* consists of the following seven species important from a timber and forestry point of view [9,10], C. fissilis, C. lilloi, C. montana, C. oaxacensis, C. odorata, salvadorensis and C. tonduzii [9,23]. Nevertheless, 17 neotropical tree species are currently described under the genus Cedrela that have a wide geographic distribution from northern Mexico, through the Caribbean islands, Central and South America as far as northern Argentina [27,28,21,29]. A lack of information on the distributional range and status of mahogany

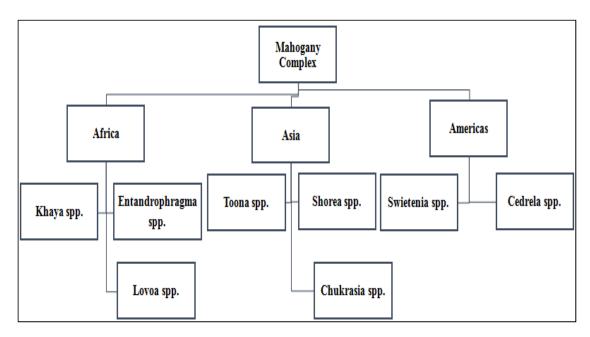


Fig. 1. Commercial timber species from Africa, Asia and the Americas with the trade name mahogany

complex around the world impedes holistic efforts for the conservation of genetic resources of these species. This review seeks to provide abridged information on the global distribution of mahogany complex and highlight the threats to the sustainability of the species. This study provides a comprehensive review on the geographical distribution of the five main economically important genera (Khaya, Entandrophragma. Toona. Cedrela and Swietenia) that are associated with the mahogany trade globally. In addition, the review highlights the overlooked loss of genetic resources of the mahogany complex, and discusses its implications for the livelihoods of rural communities. This information is critical to determine actions that will resolve some of the challenges facing the conservation of mahogany species.

#### 2. GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION

# 2.1 Khaya Species

K. anthotheca (Welw.) C.DC. has a wide geographic distribution in West, Central, East and parts of Southern Africa. The species is found in Guinea-Bissau, throughout Sierra Leone, eastwards to South Sudan, Uganda and Tanzania, and southwards to Angola, parts of DR Congo, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Malawi and Mozambique (Figs. 2 and 3A) [30,31]. K.

anthotheca is restricted to moist and dry semideciduous forest zones and is virtually absent in the Upper Guinean and Lower Guinean rainforest of the Guineo-Congolian phytochorion, where it is replaced by *K. ivorensis*.

K. grandifoliola (Welw) C. DC. is found in dry, semi-deciduous forest zones [32]. It has a restricted geographic distribution in West Africa and parts of Central and East Africa [33]. Its geographic range starts from Guinea, extends through Ivory Coast, Ghana, Benin, Nigeria, Cameroon and Central Africa Republic and eastwards to Uganda and South Sudan [33,34,35]. The species is also found in the northern fringes of DR Congo [33] (Figs. 2 and 3B).

K. ivorensis (A. Chev.) has a restricted distribution in West and Central Africa. The species is found primarily in wet and moist evergreen and moist semi-deciduous ecological zones, as well as in areas with an average annual rainfall of about 1600–2500 mm [36]. The geographic range starts from Ivory Coast in West Africa and terminates in Gabon in Central Africa (Figs. 2 and 3 C). It is virtually absent in Dahomey Gap; the 200 km wide coastal savannah corridor that separates the dense tropical humid forests of the Guineo-Congolian phytochorion into Upper Guinean and Lower Guinean rainforest [37].

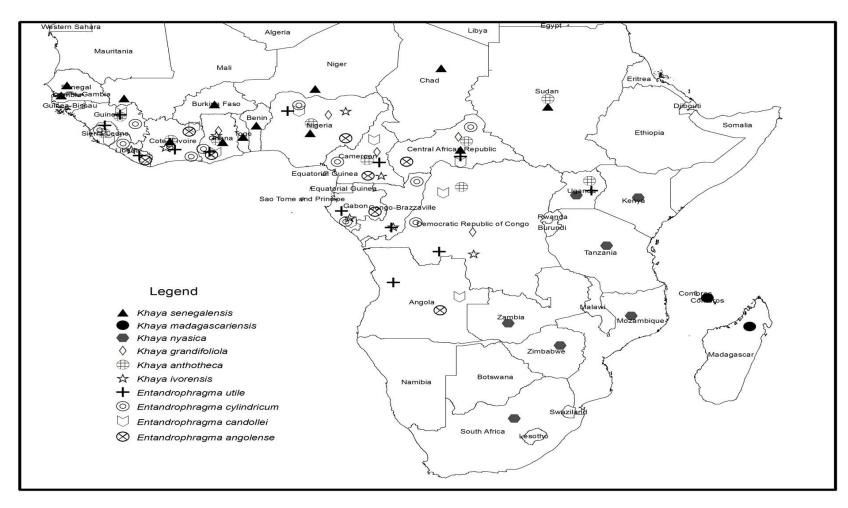


Fig. 2. Distribution of Khaya and Entandrophragma species in Africa

K. madagascariensis (Jum. & Perr.) has a restricted natural distribution. The species is native and only endemic to Madagascar and Comoros Islands in the Indian Ocean [12,38] K. madagascariensis grows fairly well in plantations. However, the population is under threat from selective harvesting and habitat destruction. It is listed on the IUCN Red list of endangered species [12]. K. madagascariensis has a unique adaptation to brackish water and marshy conditions [12].

K. nyasica (stapf. ex Baker f.) has a wider distribution in the eastern parts of Africa. Its geographic range extends from eastern DRC Congo through southern Uganda, parts of Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Mozambique and as far as the Limpopo regions of South Africa (Figs. 2 & 3E) [39,40,41]. K. nyasica and K. anthotheca have often been considered to be synonymous, but are in fact two separate species [42].

K. senegalensis (Desr.) occurs over a wide range of climatic, altitudinal, ecological and edaphic conditions in the tropics of 15 African countries from Senegal in the west to Sudan and Uganda in the east (Figs. 2 and 3D) [38,43,44,45,46]. The species thrives well in the savannah ecosystems of Sahel, Sudan and Guinea [46,47]. Its geographical distribution range falls approximately between 8° and 15°N latitudes (38) and experiences average annual rainfall of 700–1,750 mm at altitudes 1,800 m above sea level [38,44,48].

## 2.2 Entandrophragma Species

Entandrophragma is a genus of four commercially important timber species restricted to tropical Africa. The species is distributed in West, Central and East Africa (Figure 3) (4). The species can be found in rain- and deciduousforests, as well as in transitional zones (i.e., the boundary between high forest zone and the savannah) [49].

E. utile (Dawe & Sprague) is widespread in Western, Central and parts of East Africa, and is prevalent in moist semi-deciduous forest zones. Its geographic distribution range encompasses Sierra Leone, Liberia, Ivory Coast, Ghana, Nigeria, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Congo, DR Congo, Angola and parts of Uganda [50,51,52] (Figs. 2 and 4D). Ecologically, E. utile is a lowland tree species and thrives well at altitudes of about 500 m above sea level, with average annual rainfall in the range 1600–1800

mm, particularly in West Africa [50]. However, in Uganda it can be found at elevations up to 1400 m above sea level [50,52,53].

E. cylindricum (Sprague) is prevalent in moist semi-deciduous forests, especially in ecological zones with average annual rainfall of about 1750 mm. However, it can also thrive in evergreen forests, but this is very rare. In Uganda, E. cylindricum occurs in rainforests at altitudes of 1100–1500 m above sea level [54] and prefers well drained soils. The species is distributed from Guinea to DR Congo (Fig. 2 and 4C [55].

E. angolenses (Welw. C.D.C) has a wide geographic range from Guinea in West Africa to Angola and extends through Central Africa Republic as far as Tanzania, Uganda, Kenya and South Sudan (Figs. 2 and 4A) [56,57,58].

E. candollei (Harms) is found in evergreen, moist semi-deciduous and transitional formations, although the species is relatively prevalent in regions with average annual rainfall of about 1800 mm [59,Burkill, 1997). E. candollei has a low population density and is rarer at a local level than other members of the genus, although its distribution is scattered [58]. Its distribution starts in Guinea in West Africa through DR Congo to Cabinda in Angola. However, the species is restricted to the moist high forest zone in Ghana (Figs. 2 and 4B).

#### 2.3 Swietenia Species

Swietenia contains three aenus economically important species that are considered as the true or genuine mahogany timber [18]. The genus is native to the neotropics, but has been cultivated extensively in plantations outside of its natural range, particularly in Asia. The attempt to introduce some species of Swietenia into tropical Africa in plantations was not successful because of the severity of shoot borer (Hypsipyla robusta; Lepidoptera: Pyralidae) attacks [60]. This insect causes proliferation of the apical meristem leading to a reduction in the quality of the merchantable bole [61].

S. macrophylla (King) is native to Latin America and the western parts of South America, particularly in the Amazon basin. S. macrophylla is considered the true mahogany [62], the name is associated with other related genera within the family Meliaceae that exhibit the same physical properties, notably Khaya (African mahogany),

Cedrela (cedar), Lovoa, Toona, Entandrophragma and Chukrasia [63]. The native geographic distribution range of S. macrophylla begins at the southern tip of Florida extends through the southern parts of Mexico in the Tamaulipas region following the Yucatan peninsula and extends southward through the Panama Isthmus, and Central America, Costa Rica, Belize to the northeastern section of South America, passing through High Amazon in Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia and the southern Amazon basin of Brazil (Fig. 5A) [23,64,65,66]. Due to overexploitation, Big Leaf Mahogany (S. macrophylla) has become relatively rare throughout much of its natural range (67). As a result S. macrophylla has been listed on Appendix II of CITES. Thus, requires legal verification for export on the international market [68,69,70]. S. mahagoni (L.) Jacq is endemic and native to southern Florida and the islands of the Caribbean (Bahamas, Netherlands Antilles, Haiti, Cuba, Jamaica and the Dominican Republic (Fig. 5C) [23,60,66,71,72]. However, it has been planted out of its natural range in Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, the Bermudas, the Lesser Antilles, Trinidad and Tobago, and southward to South America and the island of Curação [23]. S. mahagoni has been extensively planted as an exotic timber tree species in southern Asia (India, Sri Lanka, and Bangladesh) and in the Pacific (Malaysia, Philippines, Indonesia and Fiji) [71].

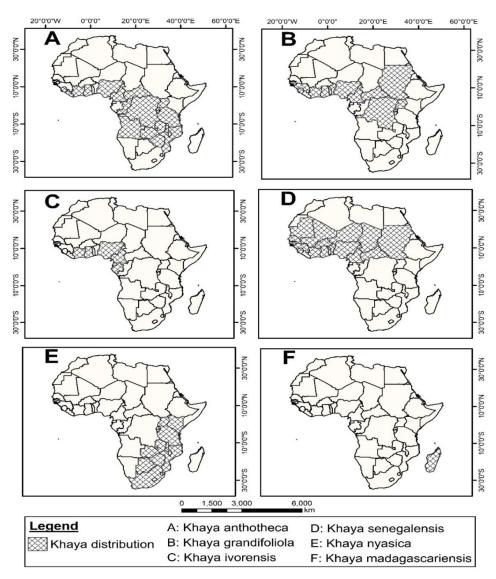


Fig. 3. Geographic distribution of Khaya species in Africa

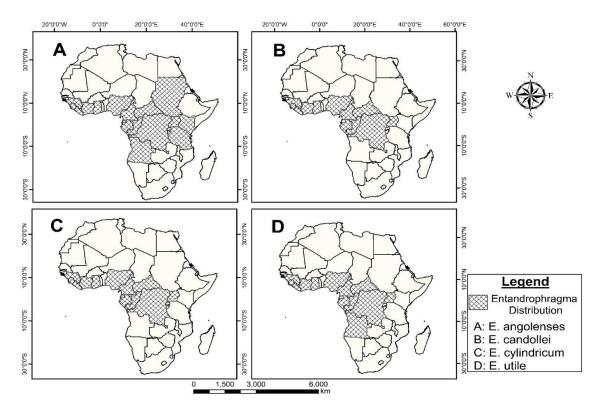


Fig. 4. Geographic distribution of Entandrophragma species in Africa

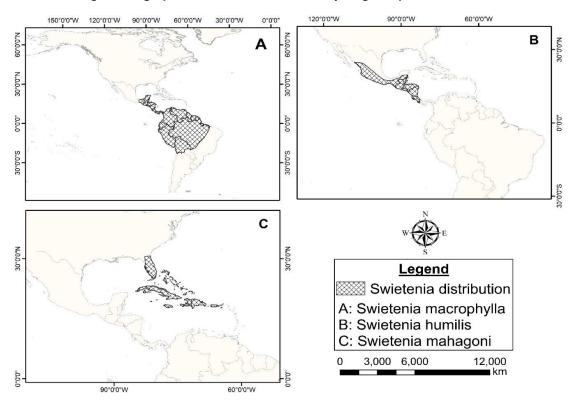


Fig. 5. Geographic distribution of Swietenia species in Latin America (Neotropics)

S. humilis Zucc has a narrow geographic distribution range within Central America along the Pacific Coast, starting from Sinaloa in southern Mexico through Belize, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and north to Punta Arenas in Costa Rica (Fig. 5B) [23,73,74]. S. humilis is endangered over much of its natural distribution area due to degradation of its habitat and is listed in Appendix II of CITES [75].

#### 2.4 Cedrela Species

C. odorata L. is a timber tree species native to tropical America. It is widely distributed in its native range in the neotropics. The geographic distribution range starts from Mexico (latitude 26°N) then moves southwards throughout Central America to the provinces of Misiones and Tucuman in northern Argentina (latitude 28°S) and then on to the Caribbean [76,10,77,78,23] (Fig. 6A). In Mexico, C. odorata is distributed along the Pacific coast(Gulf of Mexico), from Sinaloa in the north (latitude 26° N) to the Chiapas in the south through Tamaulipas, Campeche and southeast of San Luis Potosí to the Yucatan Peninsula, and Quintana Roo on the Atlantic coast [77,23]. C. odorata is widely cultivated as a timber tree species within and outside the neotropics. In the tropics, it is extensively cultivated as an exotic timber tree species in industrial plantation estates in Ghana, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania, Thailand, Uganda and Kenya.

C. fissilis (Vellozo) is native to Central and South America. The geographic distribution range starts in the north in Costa Rica through the western parts of South America to Brazil, Bolivia and northern Argentina (Fig. 6 B) [78,27]. In Brazil, C. fissilis is distributed from Rio Grande del Sur to Minas Gerais, in semi-deciduous forests and in Atlantic Forest [23]. The species widespread within Brazil but uncommon in Amazonia, except in lowland evergreen forests and flooded forests [79]. C. fissilis generally occurs at lower elevations and is usually associated with seasonal forests [80]. However, it can also be found in other closed-canopy forests types that are within proximate of seasonal forests [81,27]. C. fissilis and C. odorata are two major Cedrela species that are widely distributed in the neotropics [81].

C. lilloi C.DC. is endemic to South America. The species is confined or restricted to South

American montane regions [82]. The geographic distribution range starts from Ecuador, Peru extends through Bolivia, Brazil (Santa Catarina) and Paraguay, and terminates in Argentina [83] (Fig. 6 C). C. lilloi is usually found within upland forests (subtropical montane rainforest) at altitudes that range between 1000–3400 m above sea level [75,84].

C. montana Moritz ex Turcz has restricted distribution in South America. C. montana is found in the Andes regions of Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru up to altitudes of between 1200 and 3000 m above sea level [79,85,23,86] (Fig. 6 D). C. montana and C. lilloi are both common in subtropical montane rainforests or cloud forest belts [23]. These two species (C. montana and C. lilloi) are usually associated with highlands [75,24]. The distribution range is restricted to the western part of South America, particularly in the Highlands region of the Andes [86]. C. montana occurs in the same ecological zones as C. lilloi.

C. salvadorensis (Standley) is a native species endemic to Central America. The geographic distribution range begins in the Mexican states of Jalisco to Chiapas and throughout Central America (Belize, Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica) up to North Panama (Fig. 6E) [24,75,87]The species thrives in dry tropical forests or deciduous humid forests at altitudes generally less than 1000 m above sea level [23].

C. tonduzii C. DC is a native timber tree species of Central America. C. tonduzii has restricted geographic distribution. The distributional range starts from Oaxaca and Chiapas in southern Mexico and extends throughout Central America to Panama (Fig. 6F) [88,89]. C. oaxacensis C.DC. & Rose is endemic and native to the Balsas River basin in Mexico, occurring in the dry areas of Morelos, Veracruz, Guerrero and Oaxaca states. The distribution range extends from Mexico throughout Central America up to the Isthmus of Panama (Fig. 6 G) [9,23,24, 26,75,88,90].

#### 2.5 Toona Species

*T. fargesii* A. Chev is widely distributed in Asia; from the Assam region of India, Bhutan, through Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam and Laos to the southern Chinese provinces of Hsueh and Kwangesi (Fig. 7 A) [91].

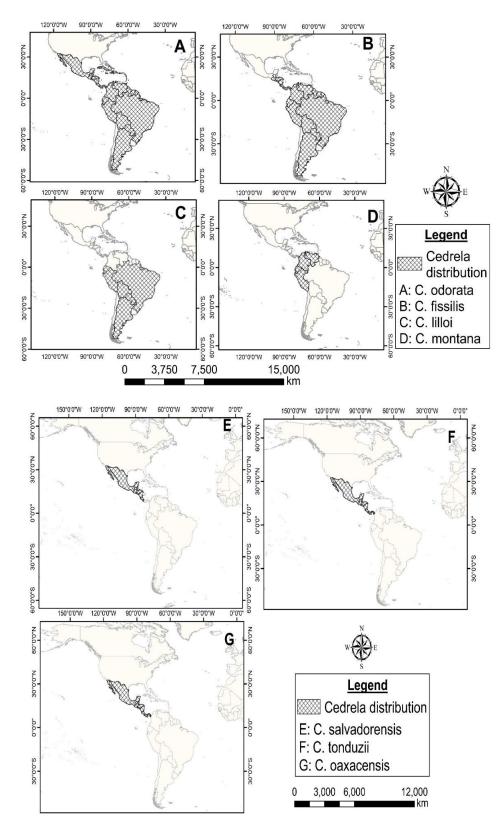


Fig. 6. Geographic distribution of Cedrela species in the Americas

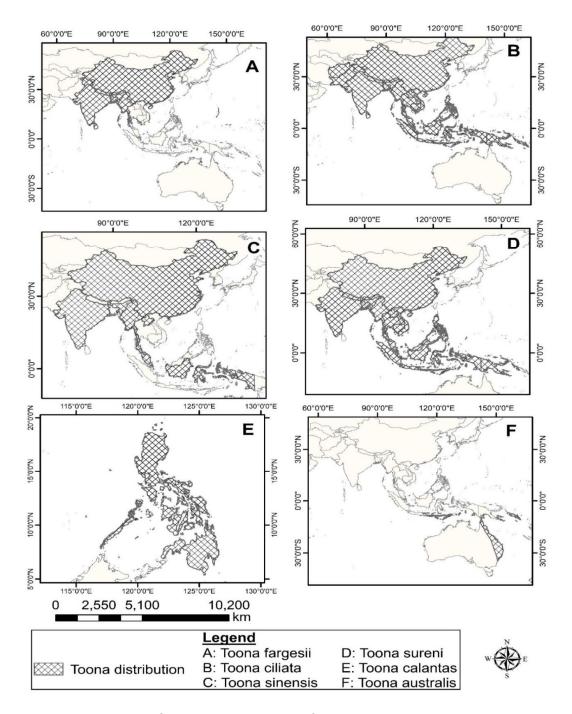


Fig. 7. Geographic distribution of Toona species in Asia

T. ciliata M. Roem is a native timber tree species of Southeast Asia (Fig. 7 B). The geographic distribution range starts in Afghanistan to the east and extends through India, Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Papua New Guinea, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and China

(Guangdong, Hainan, Sichuan, Yunnan) [92,93,94,96].

T. sinensis (A. Juss.) M. Roem (Chinese mahogany) is commonly known as Chinese mahogany. It originates or is native to East Asia, particularly northern and western China. The

geographic distribution range starts from Nepal, northern India and extends eastwards through Bhutan, Myanmar, Thailand, Laos, Malaysia, Java, Indonesia and China as far as North Korea (Fig. 7 C) [91,94] The species thrives well at high altitudes.

T. sureni (Blume) Merr (Indonesian mahogany) is synonymous with T. febrifuga (Blume) M.J. Roemer. It is a native species and is widely distributed throughout south Asia. The geographic range covers India (Bhutan and Nepal); Indochina (Myanmar, Laos, Cambodia, Thailand and Vietnam); China (Guizhou, Hainan, Sichuan and Yunnan); Malesia (Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines); and Papua New Guinea (Fig. 7D) [96,97] . It grows at elevations from 1200 -2700 m above sea level. It usually inhabits secondary semi-evergreen forests. T. calantas Merr. & Rolfe (Philippine mahogany) is widely distributed throughout the Philippines, especially in the Balabac group of islands (Fig. 7E) [98]. It is endemic to the Philippines (Batan Islands, Luzon, Mindoro, Samar, Negros, Leyte, Cebu and Mindanao) [99,78]. T. calantas is usually associated with dry seasonal forest ecotypes (Barstow, 2018). In Philippines, it is a high-value economic timber tree species [76]. T. australis (Kuntze) Harms is a native species restricted to eastern Australia (New South Wales and Queensland). It is sometimes considered to be synonymous with T. ciliata M. Roem [91], although the two species are separate species [see, 96]. T. australis is endemic to Australia [91].

# 3. MAHOGANY GENETIC RESOURCES AND LIVELIHOODS

In the tropics and subtropics where mahoganies are native species their functional uses have evolved in tandem with the culture of the people over millennia [100]. Hence, the livelihoods of such rural communities are directly dependent on the genetic resources of the species. In Latin America, Africa and parts of Asia the genetic resources are an integral part of folk medicines. The loss of the genetic resources base implies a loss of cultural diversity for such forest communities. Genetic erosion could lead to loss of livelihood and exposure to poverty, as well as a decline in the well-being of the local people [101]. In addition, the indigenous knowledge associated with the use of mahogany species could be lost forever. Some rural forest communities depend extensively on mahogany resources for subsistence and income generation. Many natural products are obtained

from the trees, notwithstanding the provision of ecosystem services that cannot be quantified in monetary terms. Mahogany bark extracts have been used as astringents for wounds [16]. The bark of K. senegalensis has been traditionally used in local leather industries by the people of savannah zones of Africa for the tanning of leather, because of its rich red color [102]. The bark of most species of mahoganies contains low quality gum Arabic (16), and the bark of African mahoganies contains many medicinal properties that are used in the treatment of certain tropical diseases [15,103,104]. In Ghana, the bark of K. ivorensis is a key ingredient in the production of an alcoholic beverage called bitters. The demand for bitters is very high and attracts premium prices on the alcoholic beverage market [105]. Traditionally, mahogany seed oil has been used for a wide range of purposes, most notably as a disinfectant against infection [106,107,108]. The reddish brown wood is highly valued for construction; boat building and furniture manufacture [15]. The wood is used in the production of high grade veneers and as pulpwood [44]. The wood has a high tensile strength and, as a result, is used as railway sleepers. Traditionally, it was used by the Akan people of Ghana in the manufacturing of talking drums, canoes. mortars and [109,110,111,112]. The wood produces high quality charcoal noted for its high energy value. In most cities across Africa, K. senegalensis is planted as an avenue plant along the major streets and roads, for noise abatement and to provide shade [113,114,114]. Finally, the importance of managing the value of intraspecific variation within mahogany species has the potential to improve the livelihoods of rural communities, and as a result should be given an impetus [sensu, 116,117].

# 4. THREATS TO POPULATIONS AND THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AMELIORATIVE ACTIONS

Conservation of plant species is mediated by the perceive threat of extinction to the existence of particular plant populations. Extinction of plant populations is perpetuated when the management system for extraction does not correspond to the regeneration rate of the standing crop of that particular species.

Moreover, this problem can be compounded as a result of habitat loss and disruption of necessary ecosystem processes. The conservation status of many mahogany species complex ranges from

vulnerable to critically endangered on IUCN Red List, and relatively few of these species are least concern in terms of threat to the population particularly Toona species(see, Table 1). From an international trade perspective, processed mahogany products continue to attract high market premiums [119,120]. Despite economic importance of mahogany in the economies of countries where they are found, little attention has been given to safeguarding or protecting the genetic resources of these tree species. The high quality nature of wood from African mahoganies, for instance, has led to increased demand on both local and international markets. This has led to depletion of African mahoganies and to near extinction or threatened status in some countries [121]. Big leaf mahogany (S. macrophylla King (Meliaceae)) has been heavily overexploited across its distribution range [18]. However, commercial exploitation involves the selective extraction of high-grade merchantable boles, thus leading to lower value timber forests [122]. Selective logging erodes the genetic base (dysgenic) for future generations of the species [123]. This is because large, mature mahogany trees are the main contributors to reproduction, as seed producers and pollen dispersers [124]. The reduction of reproductive tree density through selective logging may have a drastic effect on gene flow [18,124,125,126] and could lead to breeding depression and loss of genetic variability for adaptive evolution [125,126]. Because of the excessive logging of some species (e.g. Khaya and Entandrophragma), it is currently difficult to get germplasm or provenances for breeding and genetic Moreover, the improvement [2]. natural regeneration of African mahoganies, especially Khaya species, after logging is generally poor [127,128]. African mahoganies occur at relatively low densities even in mahogany rich unlogged forests [129]. Excessive fruit (or seed) harvesting and predation by natural enemies may affect the natural regeneration of mahoganies in forest ecosystems. Ecosystem fragmentation and deforestation pose a major threat to the survival of mahogany species and to their genetic Deforestation ecosystem and fragmentation increase differentiation among populations, genetic isolation emanating from reduced pollen flow, and inbreeding or outbreeding depression [see e.g., 130].

In the Anthropocene era, human induced climate change, caused by emissions of greenhouse gases, has altered rainfall patterns, increased temperatures and the occurrence of extreme climatic events. This will cause geographic shifts in climatic conditions in the future [131]. Thus, the present global geographic range of mahoganies will also be expected to shift (see Danquah 2010 [132]). Climate change events will have a tremendous effect on the phenology and survival of mahoganies as a species [133]. Rising global temperatures as a result of climate change will increase the occurrence of wildfires and this poses a threat to the survival of mahoganies species in their natural range, and will particularly hamper conservation efforts in the forest reserves (see [134].

From a silvicultural perspective, any attempt to increase the mahogany resource base on large scale plantations to meet growing global demand is faced with challenges from Hypsipyla robusta grandella and Н (Zeller) attacks [2,64,135,136,137]. seeds of Africa The mahoganies are recalcitrant and viability is rapidly lost [103,138,139]. This requires that should be stored under ambient temperatures. African mahoganies are nonpioneer light demanding species with the result that young seedlings find it difficult to survive under a closed forest canopy [140].

Successful natural regeneration of mahoganies in the neotropics has been associated with catastrophic disturbances [16,123,141]. For instance, natural regeneration in *S. macrophylla* is a rare, occasional event and is only possible upon large-scale severe catastrophic forest disturbances [18,123]. This stems from the fact that mahoganies are light-demanding non-pioneer timber tree species, and natural regeneration only occurs when there is a canopy opening or gaps to aid light penetration to the understory, particularly in tropical evergreen forests [140].

Calls for a conscientious effort in management and conservation have been made in order to sustain mahogany tree populations, and to meet current and future demands, In order to protect the species from extinction, it is important to retain remnant local populations in the wider agro-ecological landscape to serve as a source of seeds and pollen [123]. In addition, mechanisms need to be put in place to address wildfires, deforestation and forest fragmentation so as to protect mahogany species in forest reserves and in the wider agro-ecological landscape.

Table 1. Conservation status of mahogany complex in the world

Genus	Species	Conservation status*
Khaya	anthotheca	VU
Khaya	ivorensis	VU
Khaya	Senegalensis	VU
Khaya	madagascariensis	EN
Khaya	grandifoliola	VU
Khaya	nyasica	VU
Entandrophragma	cylindricum	VU
Entandrophragma	caudatum	LC
Entandrophragma	angolense	VU
Entandrophragma	candollei	VU
Entandrophragma	utile	VU
Swietenia	macrophylla	VU
Swietenia	humilis	EN
Swietenia	mahagoni	EN
Cedrela	odorata	VU
Cedrela	lilloi	EN
Cedrela	Salvadorensis	LC
Cedrela	fissilis	VU
Cedrela	oaxacensis	EN
Cedrela	tonduzii	LC
Cedrela	dugesii	CR
Cedrela	discolor	CR
Toona	sinensis	LC
Toona	ciliata	LC
Toona	sureni	LC
Toona	calantas	DD

\*Key: VU = Vulnerable; EN= Endangered; CR= Critically Endangered; LC= Least Concern; DD = Data deficient
\*Conservation status: This is a measure of likelihood of that species continuing to survive either in the present
day or the future and the potential threat to their survival. It is an assessment that monitors population dynamics
of species over period of time, taking into consideration other environmental factors. IUCN Conservation Red List
of Threatened Species is a global conservation status listing and ranking of species (fauna and flora). It is
basically a checklist of taxa that have undergone an extinction risk assessment using the IUCN Red List
Categories and Criteria (Vulnerable; Endangered; Critically Endangered; Extinct, Extinct in the Wild, Near
Threatened, Least Concern, Data deficient and Not Evaluated). Source: International Union conservation of
Nature (IUCN) [118]; ScienceDaily [155]

Moreover, strict adherence to harvesting limits and/or the setting of a higher minimum diameter are required to protect immature trees from being harvested (see [142]. Sustainable management of mahogany genetic resources and natural stands in their native range requires an adequate knowledge of annual incremental diameter growth within specific ecological zones. However, annual volume increment measurements of mahoganies in natural forests are lacking [123]. An absence growth of measurements and inventory data make it a challenge to determine sustainable harvest volumes. Hence, proactive data that gathers growth rates for mahoganies across their geographical range are paramount to ensure the sustainable management of these populations.

The harvesting cycles of mahoganies in natural forests should be increased. S. macrophylla, for instance, requires a harvest cycle of 60 years or more from recruitment to commercial size [19,143], and this varies from one ecological zone to another across the natural range. A vigorous effort should be made to identify resistant provenances or populations of mahoganies resilient to Hypsipyla attack in order to aid in the deployment of the species on industrial plantation scales. The use of improved agroforestry systems and mixed plantation methods will reduce the incidence of Hypsipyla attacks [120,137]. The current geographical range of mahoganies is expected to shift in the future because of climate change [131], so increased access to planting materials or

germplasm from countries with different environmental conditions will require international co-operation and a fair and equitable sharing of mahogany genetic resources [e.g., 144,145,146].

Finally, there is a need to formulate and implement stronger policies and to enforce legal instruments at the national level within countries where mahogany is endemic. These are necessary steps to protect the species [see 69,147]. To combat the illegal international mahogany trade, countries that are signatory to CITES must enforce the provisions under this regulation [69,148].

# 5. GENETIC CONSIDERATIONS IN RESTORATION ACTIONS

Tropical forests are disappearing at an alarming rate due to deforestation and forest degradation. However, it has been proposed that restoration of the degraded forest landscape should emphasize the use of indigenous tree species. such as mahogany in association with other native tree species, to mimic natural forests [see, 120]. The use of mahoganies in their native distribution range for the restoration of degraded ecosystems offers advantages over exotic tree species as it will conserve the mahogany populations within their natural range and, at the same time, provide high-value timber [e.g., 149]. In addition, it will provide a simple means to domesticate mahogany species and their integration into agroforestry systems in the wider agro-ecological landscape. This can also be seen as an alternative approach to in-situ or onfarm conservation of mahogany genetic resources. Domestication of mahoganies species has the potential to contribute to sustainable development through the provision of products and services that will directly or indirectly influence human livelihoods [see 150,151]. The use of exotic timber tree species in reforestation. afforestation and restoration forest landscapes can lead to negative impacts for the conservation of native tree genetic diversity [152,153]. Onfarm conservation of plant genetic resources, particularly forest trees, offers plants the opportunity to continually evolve in tandem with associated plant and animal communities, as well as respond to environmental changes. However, native tree species are more adapted to local biotic and abiotic conditions and thus support native biodiversity and ecosystem functioning to a greater degree [153,154].

#### 6. CONCLUSIONS

The geographic distribution of the mahogany complex extends across four maior biogeographic regions; neotropics (Central and South America), Afrotropics (Africa), Australian and Indomalayan (South East Asia). Each region is associated with particular genera and the unique physical attributes that are common to all the species of these genera are their attractive grain and red-brown heartwood. This is the hallmark of all timber tree species called mahogany. Many rural communities have their livelihoods directly tied to genetic resources of the species. Many non-timber natural forest products and ecosystem services are obtained from mahogany. Thus, from a genetic perspective managing the value of intra-specific variation within mahoganies has the potential to contribute to the sustainable livelihoods of rural communities. However, proactive conservation actions are required in order to safeguard the rich genetic resources of the species. This is in keeping with the fact that throughout their natural mahoganies are threatened range, fragmentation deforestation, habitat excessive logging. These factors are driving the species close to extinction in their native ranges. The problem is compounded by climate change, which could lead to a possible shift in the geographical range of the species. One measure that could be used to protect the species is domestication through utilization, namely by incorporating mahogany species agroforestry systems in the wider agro-ecological landscape. In addition, mahoganies could be used in reforestation and in the restoration of degraded ecosystems within their native ranges. Finally, there is a need to formulate policies and enforce forest laws governing the management and the utilization of mahoganies at the national level within countries where mahoganies are endemic. In conclusion, strict adherence to the legal provisions under CITES will help protect mahoganies with regard to international trade.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

This study was funded by the Ghana Ministry of Education through the Book and Research Allowance. The maps were generated by the GIS Unit of the Department of Geography and Regional Planning, University of Cape Coast. We would like to thank Teaching Assistant, Ms. Priscilla Dada who contributed to the literature search.

#### **COMPETING INTERESTS**

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Lopes JCA, Jennings SB, Matni NM. Planting mahogany in canopy gaps created by commercial harvesting. Forest Ecology and Management. 2008;255:300– 307
- Opuni-Frimpong E, Karnosky DF, Storer AJ, Abeney EA, Cobbinah JR. Relative susceptibility of four species of African mahogany to the shoot borer *Hypsipyla* robusta (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae) in the moist semideciduous forest of Ghana. Forest Ecology and Management. 2008; 255:313–319.
- 3. Newton AC, Leakey RRB, Powell W, Chalmers K, Waugh R, Tchoundjeu Z, Mathias PJ, Alderson PG, Mesen JF, Baker P, Ramnarine S. Domestication of mahoganies. In: Leakey, R. R. B.; Newton, A. C., (eds.) Tropical trees: the potential for domestication and the rebuilding of forest resources. London, HMSO (ITE Symposium).1994;256-266.
- Hall JS. Seed and seedling survival of African mahogany (Entandrophragma spp.) in the Central African Republic: Implications for forest management. Forest Ecology and Management. 2008;255:292– 299.
- Tchoundjeu Z, Leakey RRB. Vegetative propagation of African mahogany: effects of auxin, node position, leaf area and cutting length. New Forests. 1996;11(2): 125–136.
   Available:https://doi.org/10.1007/ BF00033408
  - Edlin HL. What wood is that? A manual of wood identification. Viking Press, New York:1969.

6.

- 7. Knees SG. Gardner M. Mahoganies: Candidates for the red data book. Oryx.1983;17(02):88-94.
- Dunisch O, Ruhmanm O. Kinetics of cell formation and growth stresses in the secondary xylem of Swietenia mahogany (L) Jacq. and Khaya ivorensis A. Chev. (Meliaceae).Wood Science and Technology. 2006;40:49-62.
- Styles BT. Swietenioideae. In: Meliaæae, edited by TD. Pennington BT Styles & D.A.H. Taylor, (Flora Neotropica

- Monograph, no. 28.) New York: New York Botanical Garden. 1981:359-418.
- Pennington TD, Styles BT, Taylor DAH. Meliaceae, with Accounts of Swietenioideae and Chemotaxonomy. Flora Neotropica. 1981;28:1-470.
- 11. Hung CD, Trueman SJ. *In vitro* propagation of the African mahogany: Khaya senegalensis. New Forests. 2011; 42:117–130.
- World Conservation Monitoring Centre. Khaya madagascariensis. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species; 1998. Available:https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/34888/9890 926.1998
- Gartlan S. La conservation des ecosystems forestiers du Cameroun. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland; 1989.
- Hall JS, McKenna JJ, Ashton PMS, Gregoire TG. Habitat characterizations underestimate the role of edaphic factors controlling the distribution of Entandrophragma. Ecology. 2004;85(8):2171-2183.
- 15. Ofori DA, Opuni-Frimpong E, Cobbinah JR. Provenance variation in Khaya species for growth and resistance to shoot borer Hypsipyla robusta. Forest Ecology and Management. 2007;242:438-443.
- Lamb FB. Mahogany of tropical America. Its Ecology and Management. The University of Michigan, Press, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA; 1966.
- Snook LK, Camara-Cabrales, L, Kelty MJ. Six years of fruit production by mahogany trees (Swietenia macrophylla King): patterns of variation and implications for sustainability. Forest Ecology and Management. 2005;206:221–235.
- 18. Brown N, Jennings S Clements T. The ecology, silviculture and biogeography of mahogany (Swietenia macrophylla): A critical review of the evidence. Perspectives in Plant Ecology, Evolution and Systematics. 2003;6(1,2):37–49.
- Grogan J, Jennings SB, Landis RM., Schulze M, Baima AMV, Lopes JCA, Norghauer JM, Oliveira LR, Pantoja F, Pinto D, Silva JNM, Vidal E, Zimmerman BL. What loggers leave behind: Impacts on big-leaf mahogany (Swietenia macrophylla) commercial populations and potential for post-logging recovery in the Brazilian Amazon. Forest Ecology and Management. 2008;255:269-281.
- Kageyama PY. Recursos genéticos de especies de la familia Meliaceae en los

- neotrópicos: prioridades para acción coordinada, Brasil y sur de Suramérica. Departamento de Montes. FAO. Roma. Italia. (Reporte no publicado). 1996;34. (In Portuguese)
- Gouve FC, Dornelas M C, Rodriguez A PM. Floral Development in the Tribe Cedreleae (Meliaceae, Sub-family Swietenioideae): Cedrela and Toona. Annals of Botany. 2008;101:39–48.
- Muellner AN, Samule R, Johnson SA, Cheek M., Pennington TD, Chase MW. Molecular and phylogenetics of Meliaceae (Sapindales) based on nuclear and plastid DNA sequences. American Journal of Botany.2003;90:471–480.
- Valera FP. Genetic resources of Swietenia and Cedrela in the neotropics: Proposals for coordinated Action. Forest Resources Division Forestry Department Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations .FAO/GCP/RLA/128/net. Rome – Italy; 1997.
- Lamb AFA. Fast growing timber trees of the lowland tropics. Cedrela odorata. Commonwealth Forestry Institute, Oxford; 1968.
- Orwa C, Mutua A, Kindt R, Jamnadass R, Simons A. Agroforestry Database: a tree reference and selection guide version 4.0; 2009a.
   Available:http://www.worldagroforestry. org/sites/treedbs/ treedatabases.asp
- Muellner AN, Pennington TD, Koecke AV, Renner SS. Biogeography of Cedrela (Meliaceae, Sapindales) in Central and South America. American Journal of Botany. 2010;97:511–518.
- Pennington RT, Muellner AN. A monograph of Cedrela (Meliaceae). DH Books, Sherborne, UK; 2010.
- Koecke AV, Muellner-Riehl AN, Pennington TD, Schorr G, Schnitzler J. Niche evolution through time and across continents: the story of Neotropical Cedrela (Meliaceae). American Journal of Botany. 2013;100(9):1800–1810.
- Cavers S, Navarro C, Lowe A J. Chloroplast DNA phylogeography reveals colonization history of a Neotropical tree, Cedrela odorata L., in Mesoamerica. Molecular Ecology. 2003;12:1451–1460.
- Alam MDK, Basak SR, Alam S. Khaya anthotheca (Welw.) C. DC. (Meliaceae) -An exotic species in Bangladesh. Bangladesh Journal Plant Taxonomy. 2012;19(1):95-97.

- Joker D. Khaya anthotheca (Welw.) C.DC. Seed Leaflet .No. 69. Danida Forest Seed Centre. Seed. Humlebaek, Denmark; 2003.
- Poorter L, Bongers F, Kouame FYN, Hawthorne W D. Biodiversity of West African forests: An ecological atlas of woody plant species. CAB International, Oxon, UK; 2004.
- Hawthorne W. Khaya grandifoliola. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species; 1998.
   Available:https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/32172/9684738.2004.1998a
- 34. Falodun A, Poh CF, Adelusi SA, Emmanuel O. Phytochemical and anti-inflammatory evaluation of *Khaya grandifoliola* stem bark extract. International Journal of PharmaTech Research. 2009;1(4):1061-1064.
- 35. Kouam AF, Yuan F, Njayou FN, He H, Tsayem RF, Oladejo BO, Song F, Paul F, Moundipa, PF, Gao GF. Induction of Mkp-1 and Nuclear Translocation of Nrf2 by Limonoids from Khaya grandifoliola C.DC Protect L-02 Hepatocytes against Acetaminophen-Induced Hepatotoxicity. Frontiers in Pharmacology. 2017;8:653. DOI: 10.3389 /fphar.2017.00653
- Opuni-Frimpong E, Tekpetey SL, Owusu SA, Obiri BD, Appiah-Kubi E, Opoku S, Nyarko-Duah NY, Essien C, Opoku EM, Storer AJ. Managing Mahogany Plantations in the Tropics. Field Guide for Farmers. CSIR-FORIG, Kumasi, Ghana; 2016.
- 37. Demenou BS, Doucet, JL, Hardy OJ. History of the fragmentation of the African rain forest in the Dahomey Gap: insight from the demographic history of Terminalia superba. Heredity. 2018;120:547–561.
- 88. Ky-Dembele C. Clonal Propagation of Detarium microcarpum and Khaya senegalensis: A Step toward Clonal Forestry in Burkina Faso. Doctoral Thesis, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Faculty of Forest Sciences, Southern Swedish Forest Research Centre Alnarp; 2011.
- Maroyi A. Khaya anthotheca (Welw.) C.DC. In: Louppe, D., Oteng-Amoako, A.A. and Brink, M. (Editors). Plant Resources of Tropical Africa Timbers 1. PROTA Foundation, Wageningen, Netherlands/ Backhuys Publishers, Leiden, Netherlands/ CTA, Wageningen, Netherlands. 2008; 7(1):324-329.

- 40. Excel AW, Fernandez A, Wild H. Flora zambesiaca. Part 1. London, UK, Crown Agents for Overseas Government and Administrations. 1963;2.
- 41. Francis JK. Khaya nyasica Stapf. Ex Baker. New Orleans: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Southern Forest Experiment Station; 1989.
- Hyde MA, Wursten BT, Ballings P, Palgrave MC. Flora of Zimbabwe: Species information: Khaya anthotheca; 2018. Available:https://www. Zimbabwe flora. co.zw /speciesdata /species .php? species\_id=133440
- Orwa C, Mutua A, Kindt R, Jamnadass R, Simons A. Agroforestry Database: a tree reference and selection guide version 4.0; 2009 b. Available:http://www.Worldagroforestry.org /af/treedb/
- Nikiema A, Pasternak D. Khaya senegalensis Desr. (A. Juss.) . In: Louppe, D., Oteng-Amoako, AA, Brink, M. (Editors). Plant Resources of Tropical Africa Timbers 1. PROTA Foundation, Wageningen, Netherlands/ Backhuys Publishers, Leiden, Netherlands /CTA, Wageningen, Netherlands. 2008;7(1):339-344.
- 45. Nikles DG, Bevege DI, Dickinson GR, Griffiths MW, Reilly DF, Lee DJ. Developing African mahogany (*Khaya senegalensis*) Germplasm and its Management for a Sustainable Forest Plantation Industry in Northern Australia: Progress and needs. Australian Journal of Forestry. 2008;71:33-47.
- 46. Gaoue OG, Ticktin T. Fulani Knowledge of the Ecological Impacts of *Khaya senegalensis* (Meliaceae) Foliage Harvest in Benin and its Implications for Sustainable Harvest. Economic Botany. 2009;63(3):256–270.
- 47. Abbiw DK. Useful Plants of Ghana. Intermediate Technology Publication/Royal Botanic Gardens, London/Kew; 1990.
- Joker D, Gamene S. Khaya senegalensis (Desr.) A. Juss. Danida Forest Seed Centre. Seed Leaflet No.66; 2003. Available:http://www.sl.life.ku.dk/dfsc/ pdf /Seed leaflets /khayasenegalensisint.pdf. 2003
- 49. Hall JB, Swaine MD. Distribution and Ecology of Vascular Plants in a Tropical Rain Forest: Forest Vegetation in Ghana. Dr. W. Junk Publishers, The Hague, the Netherlands: 1981.

- Mujuni DB. Entandrophragma utile (Dawe & Sprague) Sprague. [Internet] Record from PROTA4U. Louppe D, Oteng-Amoako AA, Brink M. (Editors). PROTA (Plant Resources of Tropical Africa / Ressources végétales de l'Afrique tropicale), Wageningen, Netherlands; 2008.
  - Available:http://www.prota4u.org/search.as
- 51. Tropical Plants Database, Ken Fern.Tropical.theferns.info; 2018. Available:http:tropical.theferns.info/viewtropical.php?ld=Entandrophragma+utile
- Hawthorne W. Entandrophragma utile. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species; 1998 Available:https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/32236/9690202
- Plants for a Future. Entandrophragma utile
   (Dawe & Sprague) Sprague. Retrieved from https: // pfaf.org/ user/Plant.aspx?
   LatinName= Entandrophragma + utile;
   2018.
- 54. Kemeuze VA. Entandrophragma cylindricum (Sprague) Sprague. Louppe, D., Oteng-Amoako, A.A. & Brink, M. (Editors). Plant Resources of Tropical Africa Timbers 1. PROTA Foundation, Wageningen. Netherlands/ Backhuvs Publishers, Leiden, Netherlands /CTA, Wageningen, Netherlands.2008;7(1):239-243.
- 55. Hawthorne W. Entandrophragma cylindricum. In: IUCN 2010. IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2010.4; 1998c.
  Available:https://www.iucnredlist.
  - Available:https://www.iucnredlist.org/species /33051/9753619
- Hawthorne W. (1998d). Entandrophragma angolense. In: IUCN 2010. IUCN Red List of threatened species. Version 2010.4; 1998d.
  - Available:https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/33049 /9753276
- 57. Burkill HM. The useful plants of West Africa. (Vol 4 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition) Royal Botanical Gardens Kew. UK; 1997.
- Hawthorne WD, Gyakari N. Photoguide for the forest trees of Ghana: A tree-spotter's field guide. Oxford Forestry Institute, Department of Plant Sciences, UK; 2006.
- Nyemb N. Entandrophragma candollei (Harms). In: Louppe D, Oteng-Amoako AA. & Brink, M. (Editors). Plant Resources of Tropical Africa Timbers 1. PROTA Foundation, Wageningen, Netherlands/

- Backhuys Publishers, Leiden, Netherlands /CTA, Wageningen, Netherlands. 2008; 7(1):236-239.
- Lemmens RHMJ. Swietenia mahagoni (L.) Jacq. In: Louppe D, Oteng-Amoako AA, Brink M. (Editors). PROTA (Plant Resources of Tropical Africa/Ressources Végétales de l'Afrique tropicale), Wageningen, Netherlands; 2005.
- Lim GT, Kirton LG, Salom SM, Kok LT, Fell RD, Pfeiffer DG. Mahogany shoot borer control in Malaysia and prospects for biocontrol using weaver ants. Journal of Tropical Forest Science.2008;20(3):147– 155.
- 62. Nzokou P, Harris SA. Differentiating mahogany wood from allied timbers. Journal of Tropical Forest Products. 2002; 8:98–111.
- Newton AC, Baker P, Ramnarine S, Mesen JF, Leakey RRB. The mahogany shoot borer: prospects for control. Forest Ecology and Management.1993;57:301-328.
- 64. Lemes MR, Gribel R, Proctor J. Population Grattapagliaj D. genetic structure of mahogany (Swietenia macrophylla King, Meliaceae) across the Brazilian Amazon, based on variation at microsatellite loci: implications for conservation. Molecular Ecology. 2003;12: 2875-2883.
- Camara-Cabrales L, Kelty MJ. Seed dispersal of big-leaf mahogany (Swietenia macrophylla) and its role in natural forest management in the Yucatán peninsula. Journal of Tropical Forest Science. 2009; 21(3):235-245.
- Novick RR, Dick CW, Lemes MR, Navarro C, Caccone A, Bermingham E. Genetic structure of Mesoamerican populations of Big-leaf mahogany (Swietenia macrophylla) inferred from microsatellite analysis. Molecular Ecology. 2003;12: 2885–2893.
  - DOI: 10. 1046 /j.13 65-294X.2003.01951.x
- 67. Navarro-Cerrillo RF, Griffith DM, Ramírez-Soria MJ, Pariona W, Golicher D, Palacios G. Enrichment of big-leaf mahogany (*Swietenia macrophylla* King) in logging gaps in Bolivia: The effects of planting method and silvicultural treatments on long-term seedling survival and growth. Forest Ecology and Management.2011; 262:2271–2280.

- Blundell A.G. Implementing CITES regulations for timber. Ecological Applications. 2007;17:323–330.
- 69. Grogan J, Landis RM, Free CM, Schulze MD, Lentini M, Ashton MS. Big-leaf mahogany *Swietenia macrophylla* population dynamics and implications for sustainable management. Journal of Applied Ecology. 2014;51:664–674
- Ravindran P, Costa A, Soares R, Wiedenhoeft AC. Classification of CITES-listed and other Neotropical Meliaceae wood images using convolutional neural networks. Plant Methods. 2018;14(25):1-10.
   Available: https://doi.org/10.1186/s13007-
  - Available: https://doi.org/10.1186/s13007-018-0292-9
- Schmidt L, Joker D. Swietenia mahagoni. Seed Leaflet, No.18 September. Danida Forest Seed Centre. Humlebaek, Denmark; 2000a.
- Mayhew Newton AC. The silviculture of mahogany. CAB International, Wallingford, Oxon, United Kingdom; 1998.
- 73. The Nature Conservancy. Natural Heritage Central Database. (Status and distribution data on Latin American plants, developed in collaboration with Latin American Conservation Data Centers and Missouri Botanical Garden.); 1996.
- 74. Pennington TD. A monograph of the Neotropical Meliaceae. Flora Neotropica. New York. The New York Botanical Gardens. 1981;360–390.
- Schmidt L, Joker D. Swietenia humilis Zucc. Seed Leaflet, No 33. September, 2000. Danida Forest Seed Centre. Humlebaek, Denmark; 2000b.
- 76. Mark J, Newton AC, Oldfield S, Rivers M. The international timber trade: A working list of commercial timber tree species. Botanic Gardens Conservation International, Richmond; 2014.
- Estrada-Contreras I, Equihua M, Laborde J, Meyer EM, Sanchez-Velasquez LR. Current and future distribution of the tropical tree *Cedrela odorata* L. in Mexico under climate change scenarios using MaxLike. Plos One. 2016;11(10): e0164178.
  - DOI: 10. 1371 /journal .pone.0 164178
- Barstow M. Cedrela fissilis. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species; 2018. Available:https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/33928/68080477.2018

- Llerena SA, Salinas N, Orlando de Oliveira L, Jadán-Guerrero M, Segovia-Salcedo C. distribution of the genus Cedrela in Ecuador. RUDN Journal of Ecology and Life Safety.2018;26(1):125-133.
- Cavalli JP, César Augusto C, Finger G. Modelling of upper crown exposed to light of *Cedrela fissilis* (Vell.). Open-grown trees by a non-destructive method. Forestry. 2017;90:312–317. DOI:10.1093/forestry/cpw046
- Mangaravite E, Vinson CC, Rody, HVS, Garcia MG, Carniello MA, Silva RS, Oliveira L.O. Contemporary patterns of genetic diversity of *Cedrela fissilis* offer insight into the shaping of seasonal forests in eastern South America. American Journal of Botany.2016;103 (2):307-316.
- Grau HR. Regeneration patterns of Cedrela lilloi (Meliaceae) in northwestern Argentina subtropical montane forests. Journal of Tropical Ecology. 2000;16:227-242.
- 83. Llamozas S. Cedrela lilloi. The IUCN redlist of threatened Species;1998.
  Available:https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/32989/9741887.1998
- Inza MV, Zelener N, Fornes L, Gallo A. Effect of latitudinal gradient and impact of logging on genetic diversity of *Cedrela lilloi* along the Argentine Yungas Rainforest. Ecology and Evolution.2012;2(11):2722– 2736.
- 85. Basto S, Serrano C, Hodson de Jaramillo E. Effects of donor plant age and explants on *in vitro* culture of *Cedrela montana* Moritz ex Turcz. Universitas Scientiarum. 2012;17(3):263-271.
- 86. Kübler D, Hildebrandt P, Günter S, Stimm B, Weber M, Mosandl R, Muñoz J, Cabrera O, Aguirre N, Zeilinger J, Silva B. Assessing the importance of topographic variables for the spatial distribution of tree species in a tropical mountain forest. Erdkunde. 2016;70(1):19–47. DOI: 10.3112/erdkunde.2016.01.03
- 87. Hassler M. World Plants: Synonymic Checklists of the Vascular Plants of the World (version Apr 2018). In: Roskov Y, Ower G, Orrell T, Nicolson D, Bailly N, Kirk PM, Bourgoin T, DeWalt R.E., Decock W., Nieukerken E van, Zarucchi J, Penev., eds. Species 2000 & ITIS Catalogue of Life. Digital resource at www.catalogueoflife.org/col. Species 2000: Naturalis, Leiden, the Netherlands; 2018 ISSN 2405-8858.

- 88. Grandtner MM. Elsevier's dictionary of trees, volume 1 North America: With names in Latin, English, French, Spanish and other languages .Elsevier B.V. Amsterdam, The Netherlands; 2005.
- Eason HM, Setzer, WN. Bark Essential Oil Composition of Cedrela tonduzii C. DC. (Meliaceae) from Monteverde, Costa Rica. Records of Natural Products. 2007;1(2-3):24-27.
- Cavers S, Telford A, Cruz FA, Castaneda AJ, Valencia R, Navarro C, Buonamici A, Lowe AJ, Vendramin GG. Cryptic species and phylogeographical structure in the tree Cedrela odorata L. throughout the Neotropics. Journal of Biogeography. 2013;40:732–746.
- 91. Edmonds JM. The potential of *Toona* species (Meliaceae) as multipurpose and plantation trees in Southeast Asia. The Commonwealth Forestry Review. 1993;72(3):181-186.
- 92. Li P, Zhan X, Que O, Qu W, Liu M, Ouyang K, Li J, Deng X, Zhang J, Liao B, Pian R, Chen X.). Genetic diversity and population structure of *Toona Ciliata* Roem. Based on sequence-related amplified polymorphism (srap) markers. Forests.2015;6:1094-1106. DOI: 10.3390/f6041094
- Chowdhury R. 5-Methylcoumarins from Toona ciliata stem bark and their chemotaxonomic significance. Biochemical Systematics and Ecology.2004; 32:103–105.
- 94. Heinrich I, Banks JCG. Variation in phenology, growth, and wood anatomy of *Toona* sinensis and *Toona Ciliata* in relation to different environmental condition. International Journal of Plant Sciences .2006; 167(4):831–841.
- 95. Chowdhury R., Hasan CM. Rashid MA. Bioactivity from *Toona ciliata* Stem Bark. Pharmaceutical Biology.2003; 41(4): 281–283.
- Parvin S, Zeng XN, Islam TM. Bioactivity of Indonesian mahogany, Toona sureni (Blume) (Meliaceae), against the red flour beetle, Tribolium castaneum (Coleoptera, Tenebrionidae). Revista Brasileira de Entomologia. 2012;56(3):354–358.
- Djam'an DF. Toona sureni. Seed Leaflet. Danida Forest Seed Centre. Denmark; 2003.
- 98. Dayan MDP, Reaviles RS, Bandian DB. Indigenous forest tree species in Laguna province Ecosystems Research and

- Development Bureau Department of Environment and Natural Resources College, Laguna, Philippines; 2007.
- Fernando ES., Sun BY, Suh MH, Kong HY, Koh KS. Flowering Plants and Ferns of Mt. Makilng. ASEAN-Korea Environmental Cooperation Unit (AKECU) National Instrumentation Center for Environmental Management, College of Agriculture and Life Sciences Seoul National University; 2004.
- Wiersum KF. From natural forest to tree crops, co-domestication of forests and tree species, an overview. Netherlands Journal of Agricultural Science.1997;45:425– 438.
- 101. Chazdon RB, Harvey CA, Komar O, Griffith DM, Ferguson BG, Martinez-Ramos, M, Morales, H, Nigh R, Soto-Pinto L, van Breugel M, Philpott SM. Beyond reserves: A research agenda for conserving biodiversity in human-modified tropical landscapes. Biotropica: 2009; 41(2):142–153.
- Boffa JM. Agroforestry parklands in sub-Saharan Africa. FAO, Rome. Conservation Guide No. 34: 1999.
- 103. Taylor ME. Synecology and silviculture in Ghana. Accra, Ghana, Legon University; Edinburgh, U.K Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd, UK; 1960.
- 104. Zhang HP, Wang X, Chen F, Androulakis XM, Wargovich MJ. Anticancer activity of limonoids from Khaya senegalensis. Phytotherapy Research. 2007;21:731-734.
- Samir AM, Abdelgaleil F H, Munehiro N. Antifungal activity of limonoids from *Khaya ivorensis*. Pest Management Science. 2005;61(2):186-190.
- 106. Aliyu FM, Kachallah M, Bulus Y, Goje FA, Amshi S, Bababe AB. Evaluation of combined effect of Azadirachta indica and Khaya senegalensis oils on common fastidious microorganisms. The Pharma Innovation Journal. 2018;7(2):183-186.
- 107. Salih NKE M, Yahia EM. Khaya senegalensis seed: Chemical characterization and potential uses. Journal of chemical and pharmaceutical research. 2015;7(6):409-415.
- 108. Omotoyinbo B I, Afe AE, Kolapo OS, Alagbe OV. Bioactive constituents of essential oil from *Khaya senegalensis* (Desr.) bark extracts. American Journal of Chemical and Biochemical Engineering. 2018;2(2):50-54.

DOI: 10.11648/j.ajcbe.20180202.13

- 109. *Kuutiero* JP. The xylophonist and the poetry of the xylophone text with emphasis on the dagara dirge. Journal of Science and Technology.2006;26(1):124-132.
- 110. Eldridge ER. The impacts of deforestation on drum making in Ghana, West Africa. Masters Thesis. University of Tennessee, Knoxville; 2005.
- 111. Talmor R. Masks, elephants, and Djembe drums: Craft as historical experience in Ghana. The Journal of Modern Craft. 2012;5(3):295–320. DOI: 10.2752/ 17496781 2X13511744764 480
- 112. Galeota Jr. JA. Drum making among the Southern Ewe People of Ghana and Togo. Master of Arts Thesis. Middletown, Connecticut, Wesleyan University; 1985.
- 113. Robertson B. Growing African Mahogany (Khaya senegalensis) in Northern Australia. Northern Territory Department of Business, Industry and Resource Development, Darwin. Agnote 811 (Agdex No: 346/20); 2002.
- 114. Fu Q, Yang X, Wu Q. Analysis of plants suitable for urban afforestation. Scientia Silvae Sinicae.1996;32(1):35-43.
- 115. Tilakaratna D. Hysipyla shoot borers of Meliaceae in Sri Lanka. In: Floyd, R.B. and Huxwell, C. (Eds.). Hysipyla shoot borers in Meliaceae – Proc. of an International Workshop, Kandy, Sri Lanka. ACIAR Proceedings No. 97.2001. 1996;3-6.
- 116. Dawson IK, Lengkeek A, Weber JC, Jamnadass R. Managing genetic variation in tropical trees: linking knowledge with action in agroforestry ecosystems for improved conservation and enhanced livelihoods. Biodiversity Conservation. 2009;18:969–986.
- 117. Fisher H, Gordon J. Improved Australian tree species for Vietnam. ACIAR impact assessment series report no. 47. The Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research, Canberra, Australia; 2007.
- 118. International Union conservation of Nature (IUCN). The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2019-3 [Accessed 2019 December 10] Available:http://www.iucnredlist.org. 2019
- 119. Whitmore TC. Mahogany: Tree of the Future. In: Big-leaf mahogany genetics, ecology, and management. Editors. Lugo AE, Colón JCF and Alayón M. Ecological Studies. 2003;159:1-5.

- 120. Opuni-Frimpong E,Nyarko-Duah NY, Belford EJD, Storer JA. Silvicultural systems for restoration of mahogany in degraded landscapes in Africa: influence of mixed rainforest plantation on growth and pest damage. Open Journal of Forestry. 2014;4:414-425.
- 121. Danquah JA. Restoration of degraded dry semideciduous forest ecosystem in Ghana: Effects of African mahogany species on soil chemistry, tree diversity and application of leaf morphometrics for provisional seed zonation. Dissertationes Forestales. 2012;148:1-37
- 122. Merry FD, Carter DR. Factors affecting Bolivian mahogany exports with policy implication for forest sector. Forest Policy and Economics. 2001;2:281-290.
- 123. Snook LK. Catastrophic disturbance, logging and the ecology of mahogany (Swietenia macrophylla King): grounds for listing a major tropical species in CITES. Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society. 1996;122(1):35-46.
- 124. Lourmas M, Kjellberg F, Dessard H, Joly HI, Chevallier MH. Reduce density due to logging and its consequences on mating system and pollen flow in African mahogany Entandrophragma cylindricum. Heredity. 2017;9:151-160.
- 125. Alvarez-Buylla ER, Garcia-Barrios R, Lara-Moreno C, Martinez-Ramos M. Demographic and genetic models in conservation biology: application and perspective for tropical rain forest tree species. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics. 1996;27:387-421.
- 126. Barrett SCH, Kohn JR. Genetic and evolutionary consequences of small population size in plants: Implications for conservation In: Genetics and conservation of rare plants (Falk DA and Holsinger KF, Eds), New York: Oxford University Press. 1991;3-30.
- 127. Hawthorne WD. Forest Regeneration after logging: findings of a study in the Bia South game production reserve, Ghana. ODA Forestry Series No. 3, Natural Resources Institute, Chatham Maritime, London; 1993.
- 128. Lauma-aho, T. Natural regeneration of African mahogany (Khaya ivorensis) in the moist-semideciduous forest in Ghana. M. Sc. Thesis. The University of Helsinki, Finland; 2003.

- 129. Hall JS, Harris DJ, Medjibe V, Berlyn GP, Ashton PMS. The effects of selective logging and three species composition in a Central African forest: implications for forest management of conservation areas. Forest Ecology and Management. 2003; 183:249-264.
- 130. Boshier D, Amaral W. Threats to forest ecosystems and challenges for the conservation and sustainable use of forest genetic resources. In: Vinceti, B., W. Amaral and B. Meilleur, editors. Challenges in managing forest genetic resource for livelihoods: examples from Argentina and Brazil. International Plant Genetic Resources Institute, Rome, Italy; 2004.
- 131. IPCC. Climate change 2007. The fourth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge; 2007.
- 132. Danquah JA. Phenotypic plasticity of leaf length to an environmental gradient in Khaya ivorensis (Meliaceae) populations in Ghana. African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology. 2010;4(12):860-865
- 133. Petit RJ, Hu FS, Dicks CW .Forests of the past: a window to future changes. Science. 2008;320:1450–1452.
- 134. Appiah M, Damnyag L, Blay D, Pappinen A. Forest and agroecosystem fire management in Ghana. Mitigation Adaptation Strategies for Global Change. 2010;15:551–570.
- 135. Newton AC., Watt A D, Lopez F, Cornelius JP, Mesen JF, Corea EA. Genetic Variation in Host Susceptibility to Attack by the Mahogany Shoot Borer, *Hypsipyla grandella* (Zeller). Agricultural and Forest Entomology.1999;1:11-18.

  Available:http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.14619563.1999.00002.x
- 136. Hauxwell C, Mayhew J, Newton A. Silvicultural Management of Hypsipyla. In R. B. Floyd, & C. Hauxwell (Eds.), Hypsipyla Shoot Borers in Meliaceae (pp. 151-163). Canberra: ACIAR; 2001.
- 137. Opuni-Frimpong E, Karnosky DF, Storer AJ, Cobbinah JR. The Effect of Mixed Species Stands on *Hypsipyla* Attack on mahogany trees in the moist semi-deciduous forest of Ghana. The International Forestry Review. 2005;7: 57.

- 138. Swaine MD, Agyeman VK, Kyere B, Orgle TK, Thompson J, Veenendaal E M. Ecology of forest trees in Ghana. ODA forest Series No 7; 1996.
- 139. Synnott TJ. Factors affecting the regeneration and growth of seedlings of Entandrophragma utile (Dawe &Sprague) Sprague. Makerere University, Kampala. Uganda.1975.
- 140. Hawthorne WD. Ecological profiles of Ghanaian forest. Tropical Forestry Papers, 29th edn. Oxford Forestry Institute: Oxford; 1995.
- 141. Gullison RE, Panfil SN, Strouse JJ, Hubbell P. Ecology and management (Swietenia macrophylla King) in the Chimanes Forest, Beni, Bolivia. Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society. 1996;122: 9-34.
- 142. Parren PE,de Graaf NR. The quest for natural forest management in Ghana, Côte d'Ivoire and Liberia. The Tropenbos Foundation Wageningen. The Netherlands, Tropenbos Series 13; 1995.
- Wadsworth FH, Gonzalez E. Sustained mahogany plantation heartwood increment. Forest Ecology and Manage-ment. 2008;255:320–323.
- 144. Vinceti В. Dawson I, Koskela Jamnadass R. Tree genetic resources: international interdependence in the face of climate change. In: Fujisaka S. Halewood M, Williams D (Eds). The impact climate change on countries' οf interdependence on genetic resources for food and agriculture. Background study paper no. 48. The Commission on Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome. 2009;18-26.
- 145. CBD. Convention on Biological Diversity. United Nations, New York, USA; 1992.
- 146. CBD. Bonn Guidelines on Access to Genetic Resources and Fair and Equitable Sharing of the Benefits Arising out of their

- Utilization. Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, Montreal, Canada; 2002.
- Duery S, Vlosky R. Bolivia: a global leader in certification. Forest Products Journal. 2005;55(5):8–18.
- 148. Grogan J, Barreto P, Veríssimo A. Mahogany in the Brazilian Amazon: Ecology and Perspectives on Management. IMAZON, Belém, Pará, Brazil; 2002.
- 149. Seymour RS, Hunter ML. Principles of Ecological Forestry. In M. L. Hunter (Ed.), Maintaining Biodiversity in Forest Ecosystems. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1999;22-62. Available:http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO97 80511613029.004
- 150. Mendez VE, Gliessman SR, Gilbert GS. Tree biodiversity in farmer cooperatives of a shade coffee landscape in western El Salvador. Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment.2007;119(1-2):145-159.
- 151. Simons AJ, Leakey RRB. Tree domestication in tropical agroforestry. Agroforestry Systems. 2004;61:167–181.
- 152. Vinceti B, Amaral W, Meilleur B. Challenges in managing forest genetic resource for livelihoods: examples from Argentina and Brazil. International Plant Genetic Resources Institute, Rome, Italy; 2004.
- 153. Thomas E, Jalonen R, Loo J, Boshier D, Gallo L., Cavers S, Bordács S, Smith P, Bozzano M . Genetic considerations in ecosystem restoration using native treespecies. Forest Ecology and Management.2004;333:66–75.
- 154. Tang CQ, Hou X, Gao K, Xia T, Duan C, Fu D. Man-made versus natural forests in mid-Yunnan, Southwestern China. Mountain Research Development. 2007; 27:242–249.
- 155. Science Daily. Conservation status; 2020. [Accessed 2020 14<sup>th</sup> January] Available:https: //www. sciencedaily.Com / terms /conservation\_status.htm

© 2019 Danquah et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:
The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/54075